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ONTARIO

Department of Education

Courses of Study

Grades XI and XII

SOCIAL STUDIES

HISTORY

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COURSES OF STUDY for Grades XI and XII

in

Collegiate Institutes, High and Continuation Schools

ANCIENT, MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY

The following are suggested as aims in the teaching of the courses outlined for Grades XI and XII:

1. To give an understanding of the sources and development of European civilization in order that the pupil may not only appreciate our debt to the past but may better comprehend the world in which he now lives.
2. To indicate to the pupil that the crowning achievement in this long evolution of institutions and ideas is to be found in the creation of democracy with its ideals of social equality and of government.
3. To show what an important part England and British institutions have played in this great achievement.
4. To lead the pupil to realize the growing inter-dependence of nations and peoples in the modern age, and so to appreciate the need of a spirit of tolerance, neighborliness and co-operation.
5. To encourage the pupil to develop sound thinking and balanced judgment.
6. To broaden the interests and experience of the pupil by bringing to his attention the artistic, scientific, and other cultural achievements of our civilization.

The following suggestions are presented to guide teachers:

The organization of the course into a few large divisions, with explanatory notes at the beginning of each section and with a fairly detailed outline, will enable the teacher to have a clear conception of the main theme of development and of the chief points to be emphasized. He should exercise good judgment in the amount of detailed study of the various topics that may properly be expected of pupils of this grade.

In attempting to realize the aims suggested above the teacher must preserve a judicial spirit and cultivate broad sympathies in order to interpret the peoples whose history he is teaching. He must be willing to consider as many facts as possible in each case, and to seek the truth patiently and impartially.

The teacher's personal opinions should not be forced upon the pupils, but controversial issues have to be faced. These should be discussed fairly, although in most cases it may not prove possible to reach a final decision. The spirit in which discussions are carried on in the classroom should be that which must necessarily prevail in any successful democracy.

Grade XI

ANCIENT AND MEDIEVAL HISTORY

The Legacy of the Ancient World.

Only after man had been on this planet for many milleniums did he leave his cave and begin his long but successful conquest of nature through the use of metals. His invention of the alphabet assured for him the preservation of his experience from generation to generation. Certain river valleys, where mankind first experienced considerable leisure, became cradles of civilization. The most important of these were the valleys of the Nile and the Tigris-Euphrates. Gradually, too, in his religious thinking he attained the conception of one God and to the Hebrew writers the world still turns for the most exalted expression of religious thought.

Though empires came and went, it is to the Greeks that the world is indebted for the first successful experiment in democracy. To them it is also indebted for much of its inspiration in literature, the fine arts, philosophy and the sciences. The Greeks with their sense of beauty, their appreciation of proportion and their love of truth exerted an unparalleled influence on the Roman world and, since the Renaissance, on modern times.

Although the Romans lacked the creative genius of the Greek writers and artists, they appreciated their culture and preserved this rich heritage for subsequent ages. They built a vast empire by uniting a large portion of Europe with other lands bordering on the Mediterranean and to that empire they gave security, a common culture and an enlightened administration. This period is marked by the rise of Christianity, a faith which was destined to permeate the Empire and to build a still greater empire after Rome had fallen. The system of law and justice which Rome developed not only excelled everything that preceded it but remained a valuable legacy for succeeding centuries.

I. The nations of the Eastern Mediterranean World.

A. The threshold of history:

1. The doors to man's distant past unlocked by modern science.
2. Prehistoric man—hunter, shepherd, farmer.
3. The primitive tools and crafts of the Stone Age.

B. The dawn of civilization in two great river valleys (c. 4000 B.C.-c. 500 B.C.):

1. The growth of agriculture and of allied arts in the alluvial valleys of the Nile and the Tigris-Euphrates.
2. The discovery of the use of metal and the growth of the art of building.
3. The development of government, of writing, of reckoning time, of weights and measures.
4. The expansion of trade by sea and along the Fertile Crescent, and the growth of cities.
5. The rise of the Persian Empire.
6. The enduring contributions of these Oriental peoples to European civilization; e.g., Egyptian architecture and sculpture, Babylonian law codes, Assyrian tile-painting, Chaldean astrology, Persian coinage, Phoenician alphabet and Hebrew monotheism.

II. Greece.

A. The Aegean World (c. 3600 B.C.-c 1000 B.C.) ;

1. The treasures of Minoan art in the great palace at Cnossus.
2. The expansion of the Cretan empire to the European and Asiatic mainlands.
3. The Homeric Age; the legends of Troy.
4. The settlements of Ionians, Aeolians and Dorians in the Aegean World.

B. Greek ways of living and thinking (c. 1000 B.C.-c. 500 B.C.) :

1. The Greek city-state:
physical environment; classes and occupations; ancestor-worship; local political institutions.
2. The Spartan way and the Athenian way—a comparative study of society and government:
state control vs. individual liberty; discipline and force vs. wisdom and art; aristocracy vs. democracy.
3. Overseas expansion in trade and colonization:
motives for expansion; the character of a Greek colony; the location of the chief colonies.
4. Greek ideals:
In religion: the gods of Olympus; the oracle at Delphi; the National Games.
In art: votaries of beauty in literature, architecture and sculpture.

C. The triumph of Greek freedom in the struggle with Persian despotism:

1. The expansion of the Persian Empire to the Aegean.
2. The defence of European Greece; the significance of Marathon, Thermopylae and Salamis.
3. The organization of the Delian Confederacy.
4. The transformation of the League into an empire for Athens.

D. The Golden Age of Athens:

1. The full flowering of her democracy in opportunities for the individual citizen — in the assembly, the law-court, the schools.
2. The glory of the Acropolis—the Parthenon and the Panathenaea.
3. The intellectual awakening—in poetry, in history, in philosophy, in science and in the drama.

E. The Peloponnesian War—Greek against Greek:

1. Causes: Greek disunity; traditional jealousies; the economic rivalries of the period.
2. The reasons for the failure of Athens, Sparta and Thebes, in turn, to secure hegemony in Greece. (No details of military campaigns.)

F. The conquests of Alexander the Great and the Hellenization of the East:

1. The loss of Greek independence.

2. The course of Alexander's triumphs, the collapse of his Empire.
3. The rapid spread of Greek culture in the new kingdoms of the Eastern Mediterranean.
4. The significant features of Hellenistic culture.

III. Rome.

A. The settlement of Italy (c. 2000 B.C.-c. 600 B.C.) :

1. The migrations of the Italic peoples into Italy.
2. Their chief characteristics.

B. The reign of law and order in Italy under Rome:

1. Rome under the kings and the early republic:

Rome's geographical position; early Roman legends; class warfare of patricians and plebeians; the extension of democracy—power of the tribal assembly; the retention of aristocracy—authority of the senate.

2. The unification of the Italian peninsula:

a. Roman conquests: land—the basis of Rome's quarrels with her neighbours; extension of Roman authority over the entire peninsula.

b. Roman administration: roads; colonies; local self-government; collective security.

3. Roman life in the early Republican period: the home-life of Rome's farmer citizens; family religion and state gods; Roman citizenship; the passion for land and indifference to trade and the fine arts; Roman ideals.

C. The spread of Roman power in the Mediterranean world:

1. The wars with Carthage and control of the Western Mediterranean; Roman provincial administration in Sicily, Spain and Northern Africa.
2. The wars with Macedon and control of the Eastern Mediterranean.

D. The decline of Roman morale in public and private life:

1. In Roman politics: growth of the authority of the senate; decline of the assembly.
2. In Roman Society: wealth of upper and middle classes and their quest for public offices; ruin of peasant farmer and withdrawal from politics; idle Roman populace and mob violence; the failure of efforts of reformers, such as the Gracchi, Cato the Elder.
3. In provincial administration: unjust taxation—growing unrest on the frontiers of the Empire.

E. The last years of the Republic:

Senate and assembly controlled by military leaders; the careers of Pompey and Caesar; renewal of civil strife and victory of Octavius.

F. The Roman Empire:

1. The Augustan Age: extent and administration of the Empire; the Rome of Augustus; writers; public life; home life.
2. The Empire at its greatest extent: imperial law and emperor worship; defence; public works; gradual growth of Christianity.
3. The Golden Age of the Second Century.
4. The contributions of Diocletian, Constantine and Justinian.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

I. Transition to the Medieval World.

The last centuries of the great Roman peace were marked by a long, slow process of disintegration, during which the problems of control in so extended an empire were increasingly intensified by economic and other internal difficulties. . The fall of the Empire was hastened by the barbarian Teutonic invaders who gradually penetrated into, and eventually swarmed over, the western provinces. A period of confusion and uncertainty ensued, which may not inappropriately be designed the 'Dark Ages', a term wrongfully applied to the whole medieval era. Yet in the east the Roman Empire remained intact around Constantinople for another thousand years. Here the Greek Orthodox Church and the brilliant Byzantine culture developed through a mingling of Greek, Roman and Oriental influences. Meanwhile the ideal of universalism was preserved in the west through the Roman Catholic Church, which exerted a profound influence in the states emerging from the ruins of the Empire. The Church evolved an elaborate and efficient organization with the Bishop of Rome at the head of the hierarchy, and, especially through the ideal of asceticism and the institution of monasticism, it opposed at many points the tendencies of a turbulent world. So in matters secular and ecclesiastical, the picture of classic antiquity gradually dissolved into the medieval scene.

A. Causes of the internal decay of the Roman Empire:

1. Political, military and economic causes: over-centralization of government; gradual infiltration of barbarians into the Roman army; inadequacy of frontier defences; breakdown of public finance; restriction of trade, decline of trade, unemployment; the problem of the landed estates, decline of the yeoman class.
2. Collapse of public morale: spirit of hopelessness; political apathy; decline of patriotism; decreasing population and weakening of family; the lowering of faith in traditional religions; new religions—Christianity and the emphasis on other-worldliness.

B. The disintegration of the Roman Empire:

1. The barbarian invasions:
 - a. The barbarian peoples: Teutons and Huns.
 - b. Germanic infiltration: as slaves; as soldiers.
 - c. Overwhelming of the Roman defences: withdrawal from Britain—invasions of Jutes, Angles, Saxons, breaking of the Danube frontier—invasions of Visigoths, Ostrogoths, and Huns; devastation of Spain and North Africa by the Vandals; collapse of the Rhine frontier—invasions of the Franks.

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- d. Period of chaos.
- 2. The survival of the Roman Empire in the East:
 - a. Centre of Hellenistic civilization; preservation of the classical tradition.
 - b. Development of the Greek Orthodox church.
 - c. Byzantine culture: architecture; paintings; mosaics; influences on western Europe, on the Slavic peoples.
- C. Development of the Roman Church in the West:
 - 1. The Papacy and the idea of a universal church.
 - 2. Monasticism.
 - 3. Growth and organization of the Church.

II. The Medieval World (c. 600 to c. 1300).

The people of Western Europe in the early Middle Ages found life hard and puzzling. Old, familiar ways of living were lost; treasured customs and cherished institutions disappeared. As the once mighty Roman Empire fell apart, life became uncertain and dangerous and in desperation men sought protection from anyone who could provide it. So there developed the feudal way of living, in which people clustered in small isolated villages under the protection of land-holding nobles and their great castles. Many men sought solace in religion and refuge in the monasteries which grew rapidly in number. Feudalism because of its origin and nature could scarcely give Western Europe any real sense of unity. It was indeed marked by such wide variations in practice that it can scarcely be called a system. The two institutions which did give a semblance of unity to the medieval world were the Holy Roman Empire and the Church, and of these the Church was the more important. The revival of the "universal" empire of earlier centuries in a Christian form was an ideal which appealed to the imagination, but it could never be fully realized. The Church proved to be the most pervasive and powerful influence in medieval life. It touched every activity, but in particular it was the guardian of religious and cultural interests. Gradually, over a period of several centuries, peace, order, and a measure of security returned to Western Europe, and distinctive ways of living and thinking—a medieval civilization—emerged. In its trade and growing industry, its town life, its universities, its art and architecture, its great institutions, its feudal organization, and in powerful movements like monasticism and the Crusades we can see the manifestation of this new culture—the first culture truly European.

- A. The struggle for reconstruction of society and government:
 - 1. Feudalism as a solution of the problems of the age:
 - a. Roman and German origins.
 - b. Rise of local political and social control—lord and vassal; importance of land-holding.
 - c. The manor:
 - i. The manorial estate: local, rural, self-sufficient unit; description of an estate—castle and lands;
 - ii. The administration of the estate; supervision of work; the courts and common law;

- iii. The life of the peasant: daily labour; obligation to the lord; recreations;
 - iv. The life of the noble: fighting; hunting; eating; games; chivalry.
- 2. Restoration of the Empire in the West under Charlemagne.
- 3. The Holy Roman Empire:
 - a. The medieval concept of universal empire.
 - b. Rivalry between emperor and pope — Henry IV and Gregory VII.
- 4. The rise and spread of Islam: Mohammed and his beliefs; reasons for the success of Islam; extent of the Islamic world; Islamic culture and its influence on Europe through Spain and Sicily.
- B. Medieval civilization at its height (12th and 13th centuries):
 - 1. The Church:
 - a. The key institution of the middle ages.
 - b. The papacy at the zenith of its power under Innocent III: relations with the Empire, France and England.
 - c. Influence in the economic realm: extent of its land; relations to feudalism; attitude to commerce and industry in the new towns.
 - d. Church courts and canon law.
 - e. New monastic establishments—the friars.
 - f. Domination of medieval culture: the ideal of other-worldliness; St. Thomas Aquinas and scholasticism; the evolution of medieval architecture from Romanesque to Gothic style—the attendant arts: rise of the universities; attitude toward science—Roger Bacon.
 - 2. The Empire under the Hohenstaufens; conflict with the Popes.
 - 3. The Crusades: causes; outstanding incidents; effects on Western Europe.
 - 4. The rise of the towns.
 - a. The revival of trade and the origins of medieval towns; the opening of trade routes in Europe and to the East; the development of markets and fairs; greater use of coin; development of industry and mining.
 - b. Political organization: charters and privileges.
 - c. Economic organization: merchant and craft guilds: the artisan; leagues of trading towns — Hanseatic League; appearance of banking and credit institutions.
 - d. Rise of the bourgeoisie; a new outlook on life.
- III. The Transition to Modern Times (14th, 15th centuries)—the period of the Renaissance.

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries there appeared evidence of new tendencies and far-reaching changes in the medieval world.

Rural life with its manorial organization became less important in relation to wealthy and powerful towns and cities, especially in areas like Northern Italy and the Netherlands. The Holy Roman Empire grew more and more enfeebled. The papacy fell upon evil days of captivity and schism, recovered for a moment at the height of the Renaissance in Italy, and then was met by the demands for reform which culminated in the sixteenth century. New states, based upon the ideas of strong monarchy, centralized government, and national unity, rose to challenge feudal noble, emperor, and pope alike. Of these states England is perhaps the best example. Nationalism, one of the most potent forces in the modern world, made its appearance.

Even more important than new political concepts were the new views of life which are associated with the term humanism. Humanism emphasized the interests and values of this world as opposed to the spirit of other-worldliness which had been emphasized in medieval culture. The new views were closely associated with the rise of trade and the development of cities. Proponents of them found support for their ideas in the Graeco-Roman writers, and a revival of classical learning resulted. Curiosity and interest in this world propelled men into exploration in all fields. Inventions like printing began to shake the foundations of the older civilization, and in the realm of the arts an unparalled revolution took place. Knowledge of the world was revolutionized by eager explorers who revealed hitherto unknown lands, smashed the Italo-Arab monopoly of trade with the orient, shifted the centre of world commerce to the Atlantic states, and brought the beginnings of empire building.

A. The decline of medieval institutions:

1. Feudalism:

- a. Growth of larger political units.
- b. Decline of the manor: declining serfdom; Black Death and peasants' revolts.

2. Empire and papacy:

- a. The position of the Holy Roman Empire under the Habsburgs.
- b. The papacy: the Babylonian Captivity and the Great Schism; decline of religious feeling and the movement for reform—Wycliffe, Huss, Savonarola.
- c. Collapse of the Byzantine empire and rise of the Ottoman empire.

B. The beginnings of the modern world:

1. The rise of the nation states:

- a. England: emergence of strong centralized monarchy; Henry II and the common law; rise of parliament.
- b. Strong monarchy in France: national armies and new weapons; the Hundred Year's War.

2. Humanism and the European Renaissance:

- a. The new outlook on life.
- b. Reasons for the early triumph of the new views in Italy.
- c. Enthusiasm for classical learning; humanism finds justification for its attitude in the Graeco-Roman writers.

- d. Embodiment of the new views in the development of the fine arts; painting, sculpture and architecture; patronage of secular rulers and popes.
 - e. The inventions: printing; aids to navigation.
3. The beginnings of exploration: Portuguese discoveries; the breaking of the Italo-Arab trade monopoly; Columbus reaches America.

Grade XII

MODERN HISTORY

I. The Modern World from 1500 to 1763.

The Renaissance with the rise of a humanistic and mundane outlook on life, with the increasing importance of the middle class, with all the tremendous changes in commercial, economic and political life, was followed during the first quarter of the sixteenth century by a widespread and intense religious upheaval which in itself constituted one of the most important of all the breaks with the European world of the Middle Ages.

By the seventeenth century national monarchies, with strong tendencies toward absolutism were firmly established in nearly all parts of Western Europe, and reached their most brilliant expression in the court of Louis XIV. National states were appearing in eastern Europe also, as can be seen in Russia and Prussia. In England, however, absolute monarchy faced a serious challenge in the Puritan revolution, and by the end of the seventeenth century it was forced to limit its claims and to bow to the will of parliament and the people. A struggle for balance of power among the national states became unavoidable, and into this struggle there entered the rivalries which developed from expansion overseas. Spain, Portugal, Holland, France and England all strove for mastery of the seas, for new territories, and for the domination of world trade. Ultimately a strong British Empire emerged. Meanwhile, science, the latest-born child of humanism, was growing in importance. Knowledge was acquired in previously unexplored fields, startling discoveries were made, and there began to appear clearly the modern idea of progress and the possibility of advancement through the application of the scientific method.

Introduction: The European World at the beginning of the sixteenth century: a brief review of the beginnings of the Modern World from the Grade XI course.

A. The religious upheaval:

- 1. The rise of nation states, economic and social changes, and the humanist outlook bring increasing demands for religious reform—Erasmus.
- 2. Luther and Calvin.
- 3. The English breach with Rome.
- 4. The Catholic reformation.
- 5. The religious map of Europe about 1648.

B. Absolute and limited monarchy: the theory of divine-right monarchy; relations to the commercial revolution and religious upheaval.

1. Limited monarchy:

(a) Transition in England from Tudor and Stuart despotism to the limited monarchy of the Hanoverians—the role of the middle class.

(b) Hostility to absolutism in the United Netherlands.

2. The triumph of absolutism:

(a) France in the age of Louis XIV, a model for Europe.

(b) Rise of Prussia and Russia.

C. Commercial and colonial rivalry:

1. Decline of the Portuguese and Spanish empires and the rise of the Dutch empire; Anglo-Dutch rivalry.

2. Mercantilism—the economics of national self-sufficiency.

3. Emergence of French and English empires: world-wide Anglo-French conflict—the Second Hundred Years' War, 1667 to 1763.

D. Science, rationalism and the belief in progress:

1. The scientific method and the rise of science: Bacon, Descartes, Galileo, Newton.

2. John Locke, the triumph of the parliamentary principle and the age of reason; the idea of progress; enlightened despotism; Voltaire, Diderot, Rousseau and the spread of English liberal ideas in Europe.

II. The World from 1763 to 1850.

The Rise of Political Democracy and Nationalism to 1850.

The signing of the treaties ending the Seven Years' War brought to a halt nearly a century of conflict that had racked the world. From this struggle Britain emerged the greatest of colonial powers and mistress of the seas. Prussia found herself the most powerful state on the continent and settled down to enjoy the advantages springing from the achievements of Frederick the Great. France, humbled in prestige, shattered in finances and power, was threatened by growing revolutionary unrest among her own people. For a moment she found satisfaction and revenge for her colonial losses in helping the Americans wrest their independence from Britain. The United States was born, a new nation dedicated to democracy and with the promise of becoming a great power. To the British Empire this loss was a blow which caused many men to question the whole pattern of the imperial government.

In France opposition to the old régime grew until it overwhelmed the country. The whole French structure, political, social and economic, crumbled and fell. Men tried to build anew, but dangerous forces had been loosed in the destruction and a reign of terror prevailed. Finally, when days of exhaustion had arrived, Napoleon Bonaparte appeared and welded, from the ruins of the old régime and the experiments of the revolution, a strong, new France. But the price of his leadership was war. His military success dazzled the French nation. However, his victorious armies sowed the seeds of revolution wherever they marched. Rising nationalism and the unceasing opposition of England were two of the most important factors in causing his downfall.

To the victors the settlement of the problem was clear; Europe must return to pre-revolutionary days and be kept there as long as possible.

Count Metternich undertook the task and for more than thirty years worked steadily at it. But it was an impossible labour. The seeds of revolution had been too widely sown. Great economic changes added their unsettling influences—new inventions, free trade, laissez-faire policies, the development of railways and steamships. Under the impetus of these changes, Britain created a new empire, defied Metternich, and encouraged the United States to defend America from the reactionaries by the proclamation of the Monroe Doctrine. The middle class, rising to power in the new economic world, challenged social privilege and political reaction. Patriotism and nationalism, outgrowths of the revolution, developed in almost every country. Even the old ways in literature, painting and music were attacked by the romanticists. By 1848 the advancing forces were too strong for Count Metternich. His fall marked the end of the old régime.

A. The end of the first British Empire and the beginning of the second British Empire:

1. The loss of the Thirteen Colonies (review only); the founding of a new nation — how the issue of states' rights and national government was partly solved in 1788.
2. The second British Empire.
 - (a) Acquisition of new territory: Australia. Cape Colony, New Zealand.
 - (b) Strengthening of British North America colonies by settlement of U. E. Loyalists.

B. The era of the French Revolution:

1. The old régime in France.
2. The French Revolution:
 - (a) The Estates-General becomes the National Assembly.
 - (b) The course of the Revolution:
 - i. The failure of constitutional monarchy.
 - ii. The First Republic: execution of the king; the Reign of Terror; reaction and the Directory.
 - iii. Summary of the constructive work of the revolutionary period.
3. Napoleon:
 - (a) His rise to power to 1804.
 - (b) His political system and constructive reforms.
 - (c) Napoleon and Europe, 1804 to 1815:
 - i. Failure to invade England — Trafalgar and British sea power.
 - ii. Attempt to organize and dominate Europe: changes in the map; the zenith of his power; Continental System; the fall—Spain, Russia, Leipzig, Elba, Waterloo.

C. Other forces which helped to end the old régime:

1. The new industrialism, free trade and their social results in England; brief comparison with other countries.

2. The rise of liberalism and nationalism:

(a) Their meaning and origin:

- i. The meaning of liberalism: equality; freedom of religion, of press, of speech, of assembly; trial by jury; constitutional government.
- ii. The meaning of nationalism.
- iii. The origins of liberalism and nationalism in the social and political institutions of Great Britain and of the United States; the spread of these ideas in continental Europe through the channel of French revolutionary principles and Napoleonic policies.

(b) The growth of social and parliamentary reform in Great Britain to 1850.

(c) The clash of liberal and reactionary policies:

- i. Metternich and reaction on the continent, 1815 to 1830: the reactionary policies of Metternich and the Quadruple Alliance; the outcome of the revolutionary movements in Spain, Italy, the German states, Greece, France, Belgium (brief treatment).
- ii. The aims and results of the revolutions of 1848: in France, the German states, Italy, Austria.

(d) The Americas to 1850:

- i. Liberal and national movements in South America; the Monroe Doctrine.
- ii. Jacksonian democracy in the United States.
- iii. The struggle for responsible government in the Canadas and Nova Scotia (brief review).

III. The World from 1850 to 1919.

A decisive victory for the liberal forces had been won in the continent-wide disturbance from 1848 to 1850, but the finality of this decision was obscured for some time by the rallying of the forces of reaction in France under Napoleon III, in Central Europe under the Habsburgs, and in Russia under the Tzar. It was, nevertheless, an age of hope. Italians and Germans rose from defeat to create unified nations, the one under the astute, democratic Cavour, the other under the iron-fisted, aristocratic Bismarck. In the wars which these triumphs involved, the Second Empire went down to ruin, but from its wreck arose a democratic Third Republic which has lasted to our day. Parliamentary government spread to many countries and with it many liberal and democratic reforms. The economic conditions which had given Britain its vast wealth and power were reproduced abroad and achieved similar results in other lands. The desire for better living conditions was marked by the growth of socialism. Science, continuing its phenomenal discoveries, gave to man a still greater mastery of nature. Many people began to have visions of a world without war, and a strong peace movement appeared.

But certain developments augured ill for the future. Democracy found no real foothold in Germany and was misunderstood in Italy. Economic revolution brought in its wake social problems. The industrialized nations became rivals in a struggle for world markets and colonies which grew more bitter every year. Equally disturbing were the clashing ambi-

tions of Habsburg, Romanov and Holhenzollern. The Balkans, the centre of this conflict, where rising nationalism endangered the existence of both the Austrian and the Ottoman Empires, became the breeding place of wars. Europe became an armed camp, divided into great alliances. Friction between these alliances became more and more intense until in 1914 the world was plunged into the horrors of the First World War.

A. The changes in industry and communication from the middle of the nineteenth century to the First World War:

1. The application of science to manufacturing and agriculture; rapid improvement in methods of world transportation and communication.
2. Increasing industrialization of England; extension of the industrial system throughout the world.
3. Social problems created by industrialization; attempts to solve some of these, e.g., in Germany and Britain.

B. The development of democracy in Britain: extension of the franchise to date; parliamentary reform; education; labour in politics.

C. The spread of nationalism to 1914:

1. In Europe:

- (a) Italy: Cavour and Victor Emmanuel.
- (b) Germany: Bismarck's statecraft.
- (c) France: the Third Republic.
- (d) The rise of national feeling in the Danube valley and the Balkans.
- (e) Russia: efforts to create a modern, western, national state; Pan-Slavism.

2. The British Empire: the rise of the Dominions and the growth of their autonomy.

D. The new imperialism, arising from nationalism and industrialism:

1. Territorial expansion—map study of the great empires.
2. Conflicting interests: competition for markets and commercial privileges in Asia and Africa.
3. Alliances and armaments:
 - (a) The Triple Alliance, 1882; the Triple Entente, 1907.
 - (b) The race for armaments.

E. The War of 1914 to 1918:

1. The clash of alliances: the underlying causes (see Section C 1 (d) and Section D); the immediate causes—the Sarajevo episode; the alignment of European nations and empires.
2. Some important aspects of the war: Britain's sea power and the contribution of the Empire; deadlock on the western front; collapse on the eastern front—the Bolshevik revolution; the entry of the United States and other nations; the destruction of the Ottoman Empire in the Near East; collapse of the central powers—revolutions.

3. The important terms of the Treaty of Versailles: the establishment of the League of Nations; the question of "war-guilt"; the economic terms; the territorial changes, including those in other treaties which created new maps of Europe and the Near East.

IV. The World from 1919 to 1939.

The First World War greatly intensified the development of nationalism by the formation of new nations and by the creation of conditions that made possible the rise of such extreme national movements as Fascism and Naziism. The war also created serious economic problems, the solution of which has been greatly retarded by excessive nationalism; these problems were responsible in large measure for bringing about the great depression. The Russian Empire collapsed in the war and emerged through revolution as the Soviet State with its challenge of communism to world society. The policies of Germany and of Italy have proved disruptive to the established order; and the hopes of lasting peace embodied in the League of Nations have been disappointed. Democracy and liberalism have been forced to defend their ideas and their society. This is the challenge of our age.

A. Experiments in internationalism:

1. League of Nations.
2. Attempts to outlaw war: the Briand-Kellogg Pact; the conference method; the world court.
3. The British Commonwealth of Nations.
4. Experiments in the Americas: Pan-American Union; Canada and the United States.

B. Recent economic and social trends:

1. Significant developments: Power; transportation and communication; industry—increase in automatic machinery; decentralization; importance of new areas such as Northern Ontario, Mexico, Persia.
2. Problems: unemployment; distribution; housing; poverty.

C. Divorce of nationalism and liberalism: authoritarian states and their methods of solving their problems; e.g., Russia, Italy, Germany.

D. Democracy, our way of thought and life:

1. The real meaning of democracy: government by persuasion rather than force; freedom of the individual—speech, press, association, travel, petition, religion, election.
2. Democracy's method of solving social and economic problems through discussion and legislation.
3. Difficulties in the democratic method.
4. The challenge of democracy: duties and responsibilities of its citizens.